

THE USE OF HUMOR AND EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP STYLES

By

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This study addressed the concepts of humor and leadership styles and the differences in perceived effectiveness among persons with different styles of humor. The primary purpose of the study was to enhance the knowledge of leader effectiveness through an examination of its relationship to humor and leadership styles. A second purpose was to examine the relationship of gender to humor and leadership styles.

The research was conducted in a large urban school district. The sample population consisted of the district's 78 elementary principals, who were asked to complete a humor style survey as well as Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker Scale to determine leadership style. Those who responded were rated as to perceived humor style and perceived leadership effectiveness on a scale of one (ineffective) to five (effective) by their respective area

directors. The data were analyzed utilizing the chi-squared statistic.

In summary, the scores yielded a statistically significant relationship between the producer humor style and the task-oriented leadership style. Principals who rated themselves as producers of humor tended to be task-oriented in leadership style. In addition, those with the appreciator humor style most often had a relationship-oriented leadership style. There was also a significant difference between the humor styles of males and females. The women were most often appreciators. The men were more evenly divided between appreciator and producer styles. No significant relationship was found between leadership style and gender or perceived humor style and leader effectiveness.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

"Humor is counterbalance" (James Thurber)....Most workers and managers are far too serious. They look like they are in pain most of the day....Somewhere they have confused professionalism with seriousness....Human beings are by nature spontaneous and playful, yet the older and more "mature" we become the less appropriate it is for us to "allow" it to be expressed. (Paulson, 1985, p. 90, 91)

Chapman and Foot (1977) stated that by adopting a humorous attitude, we are more capable of mastering our fears and tolerating our distress. Greenwald (1975), in Humor in Psychotherapy, cited Freud's contention that the humorous person is able to take the most drastic circumstances and turn it into something funny, and therefore into a victory.

The use of humor in the workplace may lead to better mental, physical, emotional health of the individual, as well as lead to increased morale (Smalley, 1988). Machan (1987) suggested that leaders would do well to tap this valuable resource to promote problem solving, creativity, and more productivity. Paulson (1985), in Laughing Matters, cited ten advantages to using humor in the office:

1. Laughter may be the best medicine. There is a direct correlation between laughter and levels of

catecholamines in the blood which cause the release of endorphins in our brain--endorphins are the body's own built-in pain killers.

2. Humor is a human spirit kind of shot-in-the-arm. It is an example of our capacity to stand outside of life and view the whole scene. It helps us to appreciate life's incongruities.

3. Humor can be used to enhance teamwork. Humor helps build quality relationships. It increases morale and cooperation and can turn around enemy relationships. Laughter is as contagious as negativism.

4. Laughter can matter in communication. Effective communication balances substance with style. If there is no style or entertainment factor, viewers will "turn to another channel." Humor unlocks an audience's receptivity and may provide a memory "hook" for association of information.

5. Humor can be used to defuse resistance to change. It can be used to lessen one's frustration with the proposed change. One can use humor to blend with and defuse the complainer.

6. Humor can be used to disarm anger. Humor, sometimes an unexpected response, can break emotional tension and help people move toward problem solving.

7. Humor can be used to help increase profits. Humor gives sales presentations the human touch. It can help

establish customer interest and break early tension in sales situations.

8. Humor can be useful in providing the human factor and creativity. Humor can generate new perspectives. The attributes of humor are similar to those in creativity: exaggeration, reversal, associative thinking, spontaneity, comic vision, juxtaposition, and paradox.

9. Humor can be used to encourage self-confidence and the ability to laugh at oneself. The safest focus of humor is oneself. It need not be self-deprecation, but rather acceptance of our own humanness. It is important to laugh at what one does, not at who one is. Only self-confident people can admit their own mistakes. Humor helps one let go of one's errors and move on. It allows for risk-taking and creativity for such things that bring with them many mistakes. By laughing at errors we can help ourselves let go of the dread of failure.

10. Humor keeps work fun. Laughter can make an office a place where people want to work. Surveys show that the number one motivator is the work itself. But humor helps one deal with the unenjoyable parts of the job.

Humor can assist in striking a balance between organizational goals and the personal satisfaction of workers. Leaders can use humor to establish this delicate balance. Hodge and Truce (1980) found a high emphasis on the sense of humor as a criterion for success in business among a sample of 329 leading companies.

The role of educational leaders has changed over the last fifty years. Institutions, in an educational and business sense, were once defined as "complexes of crystallized norms" (Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1983) in which the executive was the strong, authoritative leader in a traditionalist vein, at the focus of which was Weber's "legal-rational, impersonal hierarchy of authority." Weber's bureaucratic model was based on the following: rationality as a foundation, a system of rules with consistent application, and a division of labor based on technical competence. Later, changes associated with the emergence of the human relations and behavioral science movements, advocated by Follett (1924) and Barnard (1938), included stress on the importance of the informal as well as the formal organization. The needs of the people were to be included in the considerations of success for the organization.

Bakke (1955) and Argyris (1957) advanced the fusion notion in which "effective leadership behavior is 'fusing' the individual and the organization in such a way that both simultaneously obtain optimum self-actualization" (p. 273). This concept was further advanced by McGregor (1960) in The Human Side of Enterprise. McGregor called the fusing of the goals of the individual with those of the organization "integration." The role of the leader was seen less as a dictator issuing orders from above, and more as a facilitator of leadership style. Hersey and Blanchard

(1974) suggested that the leader should select the style of management according to the situation and the maturity (ability level) of the followers. For example, if the maturity levels of the followers were low, Hersey and Blanchard proposed that the leader initially use a more "telling" or directive approach with the people to accomplish the task at hand. It was a more flexible approach to management and leadership style.

During the last decade, there has been an increasing academic interest in humor and laughter (Chapman & Foot, 1977). Previously, the study of humor had been dominated by psychologists (Rothbart, 1977). Ziegler (1982) demonstrated that there are significant relationships between certain humor factors and school climate:

These same relationships exist between certain humor factors and leadership styles as perceived by teachers. The logical consequence of this research would seem to provide principals a more important reason for developing appropriate humor related skills. This is especially important when coupled with the literature which concludes that leadership style is the salient factor which influences productivity and satisfaction of individuals in a school. (Ziegler, Boardman & Thomas, 1985, p. 346)

Organizations are enhanced by leaders who are effective, and leader effectiveness may be enhanced by a sense of humor. William Bullock (1988), after examining the literature on humor and laughter, realized that "humor is an effective tool for shortening social distances between people, an important dimension of management" (p. D-8). He stated that humor can be particularly valuable in dealing

with conflict. Conflict exists in all organizations and it must be managed. "As part of this process, humor can be used to provide relief when emotions are high and conflict is emerging. It also may help to remove barriers to reconciliation" (p. D-8).

A potentially hostile situation may be avoided with a bit of relevant humor (Shafer, 1980). Consalvo (1986) conducted a study of humor in task-oriented management meetings:

Rather than preoccupation with getting results when and the way a leader wants them, listening for and assuring smooth group process may be an important prerequisite to a quality product. Laughter seems to convey how the process is flowing and thus can be used to assure excellence in terms of outcome. (p. 38)

Laughter was a signal that the next step of creative problem solving was about to occur.

Researchers have demonstrated that effective management practice impacts the organizational climate, thus increasing the excellence of performance within the organization (Bowers, 1976; Likert & Likert, 1976). Ziegler (1982) found that the presence of humor indicates flexibility, which is a key component in effective leadership. In turn, effective leader behaviors influence school climate. Humor thus enhances leadership and school climate. A manager is part of a subsystem which impacts the greater system. That is, whatever impacts administrative effectiveness could be called an administrative tool.

Malone (1980) suggested that humor can provide a useful tool for practicing managers. Bradney (1957) has shown that it can reduce anxiety among employees. Roy (1960) illustrated how it has been used to alleviate the boredom of work, and Sykes (1966) demonstrated its usefulness in facilitating different types of friendship patterns. Orben (1987) stated that "humor has gone from being an admirable part of a leader's character to a mandatory one." When people studied the portraits and photographs of leaders at the turn of the century, the pose was reported as "always firm and forthright--the face square-jawed and terminally serious" (p. 1). Orben suggested that people who look at the official photographs of leaders today would see a relaxed body, a casual pose, and an open face, friendly, and smiling.

Business executives and political leaders have used humor because humor worked for them; school administrators might gain effectiveness by following their example. Orben further stated:

Humor enhances and projects a favorable image, eases tensions, influences thinking and attitudes, helps reassert control, reduces the embarrassment of mistakes and awkward movements, serves as a useful teaching tool, is a potent and hard-to-defend-against weapon, usually conveys good will, and, perhaps most important of all - humor makes your listeners feel better. (p. 1)

If both the humor and leadership style are known, perhaps leader effectiveness can be predicted. Managers, according to Bullock (1988), could examine their own

behavior to determine how humor has fit into their daily activities. Was it used to strengthen purposeful behavior? Did it encourage a creative effort by giving a playful sense to a serious activity?

Writers (Ferris, 1971; Koppel & Sechrest, 1970; Levine & Rakusin, 1959) have differentiated between passive (re-active) and the active generation of humor. Babad (1969) developed two categories of humor production and reproduction. The former is the inventor of funny instances; the latter, typified by a joke teller. Babad (1974) went on to develop four humor groups which are described later as they were used in this study.

Fiedler (1967), in his Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness, developed a scale for determining task-oriented or relationship-oriented style based on his Least Preferred Coworker Scale. "A leader is asked to evaluate his least preferred coworker (LPC) on a series of semantic differential type scales. Leaders are classified as high or low LPC depending on the favorableness with which they rate their LPC" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 105). High LPC leaders get their major satisfaction from good personal relations with others. Low LPC people find their main satisfaction in getting things done (Fiedler, Chemers, & Mahar, 1977).

Perhaps there is a relationship between humor style and leader style. And if there is a relationship, it may be associated with leader effectiveness. Unfortunately, there

is a lack of research support concerning the above assertions about the relationship of humor style and leader style.

Problem Statement

The problem explored in this study was to investigate the relationship between humor and leadership styles and the differences in perceived effectiveness among persons with different styles of humor.

To accomplish the purpose of the study, answers to the following questions have been sought:

1. What is the relationship between humor style and leadership style?
2. What is the relationship between humor style and gender?
3. What is the relationship between leadership style and gender?
4. What is the relationship between leader effectiveness and perceived humor style?

Purpose and Significance

The purpose of this research was to enhance the knowledge of leader effectiveness through the study of humor and leadership styles. By knowing their humor and leadership styles, administrators may be able to enhance their effectiveness, and employers might use a displayed sense of humor as an indicator both of leadership style and effectiveness.

Such information will add to the limited body of knowledge available about the use of humor as it relates to leadership. There has been a considerable amount of research regarding leadership and its effectiveness, but not as it relates to the use of particular humor styles. Humor is used frequently in speeches and in everyday behavior. It should be explored as a resource for administrators.

Definition of Terms

In order to facilitate the reading of this study, the following key terms and concepts were defined:

Humor was defined as the ability to perceive, appreciate, or express what is funny or amusing.

For the purpose of this study, the humor styles as identified by Babad (1974) have been modified as follows:

Nonhumorous referred to someone who finds it difficult to laugh; seldom tells jokes or creates humor; seldom seeks out humorous situations, or laughs at others' humor.

Appreciator referred to someone who shows readiness to laugh; enjoys the humor of others and seeks out humorous situations; but seldom tells jokes, makes up jokes or humorous stories himself or herself.

Producer referred to someone who invents humor; makes up jokes or witty, amusing stories or creates humorous situations.

Reproducer referred to someone who retells others' amusing stories or jokes or reenacts amusing situations: the "joke teller."

Perceived humor style was defined as the principal's humor style as rated by the supervisory area director.

Leadership was defined as the ability to influence others.

Leader Effectiveness was defined as the consistent ability to influence others in a manner that is appropriate for the situation, as rated by the area director on a five-point scale.

Leadership Style was defined as the differentiation between task-oriented and relationship-oriented style as determined by Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC).

Relationship-oriented was defined as one who gets the main satisfaction from good personal relations with others.

Task-oriented was defined as one who finds the main satisfaction in getting things done.

Organization of the Report

Chapter II contains a review of literature related to humor and leadership. The methods proposed for use in this study are explained in Chapter III. In Chapter IV, the results of the statistical analyses of data are presented with respect to null hypotheses formulated from the research questions. Chapter V contains the conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter current theory and research related to humor are reviewed. Leadership studies also are explored. The chapter is organized into three sections: (1) humor research, (2) leadership studies, and (3) implications and summary.

Humor Theory and Research

There is a diversity of thinking associated with humor (Keith-Speigel, 1972). Remington (1985) divided her literature study into five categories which shall be used here to explain the field of humor research.

Psychoanalytical

Freud (1928) compared witticisms and dreams, both of which he felt expressed emotions of sexual/aggressive impulses or fear/anxiety. He concluded that humor and dreams were closely related, since both involved the displacement of unconscious energy as an attempt to fulfill that which was suppressed or inhibited. In addition, as an ego defense mechanism, humor liberates one from an uncomfortable reality and provides pleasure by reasserting the ego's control.

Psychologies of the Consciousness and Cognition

This category categorized humor as a conscious and cognitive process. Several theorists emphasized the importance of specific themes or characteristics such as incongruity, superiority, and disparagement with the process of thinking to explain humor. Schultz (1976) referred to incongruity as an aspect of humor in terms of the conflict between what is expected and what actually occurs in the joke. It accounts for the surprise of the punchline, the most obvious structural feature of jokes. Suls (1977) and Schultz (1976) have argued that incongruity alone is insufficient to account for the structure of humor. They state that there exists a second, more subtle aspect of jokes which renders incongruity meaningful or appropriate by resolving or explaining it. Resolution is necessary to distinguish humor from nonsense.

Nerhardt (1977) illustrated the incongruity inherent in humor with a study in which psychology students were asked to lift a series of weights having identical handles. Results confirmed the predicted relationship between frequency of laughter and divergence from the range of expectancy. The greater the contrast between an individual's weight and the preceding range of weights, the higher the frequency of laughter.

Rothbart and Pien (1977) suggested that both the incongruity and incongruity with resolution elements contribute to humor appreciation, in addition to other

arousal-enhancing elements such as the fearful, sexual or aggressive subject matter of jokes. Whereas nonsense previously had been differentiated from humor, they suggested that nonsense (incongruity) and humor (incongruity with resolution) may not be completely independent elements.

Schultz (1976) also studied the cognitive-developmental features of humor. In older children and adults, humor is considered a biphasic sequence of incongruity and resolution. The development of concrete, operational thought in children at about age seven coincides with an appreciation of the resolution aspects of jokes. In children from about age two to seven, there is a stage of appreciation of pure, unresolved incongruity. In infancy, humor is characterized by pleasure in cognitive mastery. Cognitive mastery indicates the ability of a child to master a difficult or new stimulus based on repeated, accumulated experience with it. Some games common to infancy, such as peek-a-boo, tickling, and chasing are found to possess a biphasic sequence involving the arousal and reduction of uncertainty. Arousal and reduction of uncertainty appear to be two essential aspects of the structure of humor.

In the study of superiority and disparagement properties of humor, LaFave (1972) believed a necessary condition of humor, in addition to perceived incongruity, is a reinforcement or happiness increment. A type of happiness increment is a feeling of superiority or

heightened self-esteem. A typical cause of amusement must also be sudden in nature. He postulated that a useful humor formula might be that amusement results from a sudden happiness increment to a perceived incongruity. LaFave found that pro-male males preferred pro-male, anti-female jokes over pro-female, anti-male jokes. Members of Women's Liberation Groups tended to find pro-female, anti-male jokes funnier than pro-male, anti-female jokes. The feeling of superiority or happiness increment accompanied the perception of humor.

Zillman and Cantor (1972) presented cartoons depicting exchanges between a superior and a subordinate to male undergraduates and male professionals. The results indicated that subjects with primarily subordinate experiences exhibited a greater appreciation for humorous situations that showed a subordinate temporarily dominating a superior. At the same time, subjects with primarily superior experiences appreciated humorous situations with superiors dominating subordinates.

Suls (1977) defined disparagement theory as a theory of humor based on laughing at other peoples' infirmities, particularly those who are considered to be one's enemies. Suls contended that the incongruity phase also has an importance in disparagement humor. The joke incongruity usually takes the form of some hostile behavior or statement. It is important to note that the humor perception process may end here for those who sympathize with the

disparaged party. They may not interpret it as a joke, but rather as a hostility. Resolution will not be attained because the respondent identifies with the disparaged party.

Humor is explained for the most part in this category as the use of the cognitive processes to "unburden the individual from negative feelings and generate a positive and playful frame of mind" (Remington, 1985, p. 16). The ability to cope and adapt requires the person to think beyond the immediate situation and find the absurdity in oneself, others, and the situation.

Social Interaction and Communication

Fine (1983) found humor to be observed in social and cultural settings universally. He revealed that humor can provide a sense of community by establishing that one is a knowledgeable member of a social group. Joking relationships were observed among groups of friends and coworkers, rather than among family members. Exchanges of kidding were important for maintaining the equality of status and also showed intimacy. Fine's study of preadolescent, obscene humorous talk revealed that such talk served as a marker for indicating that the speaker was competent in the sexual areas discussed--those believed to characterize adult life. Fine proposed five mechanisms through which humor enters the idioculture of a group. Its content must be comprehensible to the group; it must not be taboo or offensive to the group; it must support a goal

towards which the members are striving, for example, relief or social control; it must support the status hierarchy of the group; and it must be triggered by an event. Humor can provide three social functions: group cohesion, intergroup or intragroup conflict, and social control.

Martineau (1972) focused on the use of humor to initiate and facilitate group interactions and relationships as well as produce conflict with outsiders opposing the group. Martineau's theory is similar to Radcliffe-Brown's (1952) in terms of what the anthropologist described as the "joking relationship." People in nearly every society have been thrust into close personal relationships with others with whom they had little in common. As a result, joking relationships developed to combine friendliness and antagonism. Joking insults were ritualistic and provided a harmless release of antagonistic feelings that developed from this forced social interaction.

Janus (1981) noted that minority groups have used humor for some time to express values and their struggle for power. It is particularly needed by those who have no other obvious form of power.

Humor can be used for conflict resolution and continues to be useful for the solving of serious social problems (Winick, 1976). Cheatwood (1983) added that humor can also allow a certain amount of social distance. Remington (1985) adds that "analyzing humor would remove the protective

distance and expose social problems that lack solutions" (p. 20).

Physiological

Humor has been investigated with regard to the action and response of the nervous system, particularly in the arousal levels that are measurable with humor. Researchers have noted an increased activity of the sympathetic nervous system (McGhee, 1983); a complete disruption in the respiratory cycle due to laughter (Fry, 1977); an increased heart rate and galvanic skin response (Godkewitsch, 1976; Langevin & Day, 1972); and increased muscle tension (McGhee, 1983). The hypothesis is that perceived properties of humorous stimuli such as jokes or cartoons affect changes in the central arousal of the nervous system which, in turn, result in pleasure. Fry (1977) stated that the humor experience results in arousal of the sympathetic nervous system. He also demonstrated heart rate and electrocardiogram increases during laughter.

Langevin and Day (1972) found that increases in heart rate and galvanic skin response, along with a maximum response to humor, was positively related to the rated funniness of cartoons. They observed that arousal increases accompany the humor response. It could not be concluded whether physiological reactivity to cartoons is concomitant to humor or an antecedent to it. A cartoon contains all the information and properties of what can be called the "joke problem" and its "solution," so that

physiological reactions and humor responses appear to happen simultaneously.

Godkewitsch (1976) studied the physiological and verbal indices of arousal in rated humor. Twenty-four female undergraduates were shown twenty-four jokes--12 jokes involving a reference or allusion to heterosexual, non-perverse sexual behavior, 12 jokes involving harmless wit and verbal put-ons. Females, rather than males, were chosen because they are somewhat more responsive physiologically.

First they were shown the joke-body, describing the situation, the protagonists in the joke, what led up to the punchline, then the punchline itself, followed by a dark period in which the subject gave two verbal ratings. The first rating was a seven-point scale ranging from "not at all funny" to "extremely funny." The second rating was a four-point scale consisting of a verbal self-report of arousal in response to the punchline. There was more physiological response to punchlines than joke-bodies. The more arousal the punchlines evoked, the funnier the jokes were rated in general. The physiological reaction and rated funniness were very strong in sexual jokes but not in non-sexual jokes. However, the two kinds of jokes were not previously matched in funniness. The sexual jokes were significantly funnier than the others in the first place. Thus, differences in response patterns may have been due to

differences in funniness, rather than to different characteristics of the two kinds of jokes.

In the area of wellness and health, humor shows physically therapeutic properties (Remington, 1985). Norman Cousins (1979) testified to recovering from a serious collagen disease through a therapy regime involving laughter and vitamin C. Cousins theorized that pituitary secretions, called endorphins, are involved in the healing effects of laughter. Endorphins are the naturally synthesized agents related to opiates, such as morphine and heroin, which act to reduce pain and produce a feeling of elation. Long distance runners have reported feelings of euphoria based on the amount of beta-endorphins in the blood stream (Goldstein, 1982; West, 1981). West also noted other activities such as the relaxation techniques of meditation, prayer, hypnosis, guided imagery and massage, as thought to cause the release of endorphins.

Eclectic

Some theorists have explained humor by the combination of ideas from the fields of cognitive, social, physiological, motivational and psychological fields (Remington, 1985). Ziv (1984) in Personality and Sense of Humor profiled the "amateur humorist" who produced spontaneous, spur of the moment humor related to the social environment. Other expansions of this idea were researched by Coser (1959, 1960), McGhee (1979), and Neitz (1980). They found that males tended to create humor while females more often

reacted to it. Female humorists were less inclined to think of themselves in terms of the prevailing social-sex role stereotypes than the nonhumorist females. McGhee (1979) and Neitz (1980) also found that in order for a female to be a humorist, she would be in violation of the social expectation that females should not dominate social interactions. In addition, individuals in higher status positions initiated more frequent witty remarks than those in low-status positions (Coser, 1960). Thus, since women often occupy a lower status in society than men, they are expected to initiate less humor.

Ziv (1984) also found that amateur humorists had backgrounds that were generally conflict-free with good parent-child relations. The humorists showed positive self-images and were less anxious and insecure than their nonhumorous peers. A positive correlation was found between intelligence and humor. Humorists were also found to be more creative (Arieti, 1976; Mindess, 1971; Ziv, 1984).

The chief social trait of humorists was found by Ziv (1984) to be extroversion. They maintained social interactions with others and were fun loving. They demonstrated a potential for leadership and were selected by their peers more frequently for leadership roles (Dixon, 1980; Ziv, 1984).

The benefits of humor in adult education were found to be related to the type of humor. Zillman and Bryant (1983) found that unrelated and irrelevant humor were detrimental

to teacher-student rapport. Unrelated humor was viewed as detracting from the clarity of the educational presentation. It had a detrimental effect on the perception of the teacher's intelligence. Teachers who used integrated, relevant humor were deemed witty, rather than funny, more interesting and motivating. Many positive learning outcomes have been identified (Kelly, 1983). The major benefits were related to the increase in student-teacher rapport in terms of promotion of creativity, motivation, attention, interest, group unity, and a reduction in conflict, anxiety and tension in times of stress.

Many educators hold an intuitive belief that humor enhances rapport with students and therefore benefits the teaching-learning process (Zillman, 1977). Factors to be used in the beneficial use of humor are circumstances, learner development and cognition, relevancy, frequency, and the educator's abilities.

Burford (1987) found that a principal's sense of humor had a beneficial effect on job satisfaction for elementary teachers, perceived school effectiveness among secondary teachers, and loyalty for teachers of both levels. Burford further stated that "persons involved in the appointment, evaluation, and development of principals should acknowledge the importance of the nature of an individual's sense of humour, especially as it relates to the effective development of principal-teacher relations" (p. 49).

Humor, as a topic of study, has gained credibility due to the research and the general popularity of humor in the cultural growth of America. Humor is one aspect of behavior that a leader can enhance and use for greater effectiveness. The following description of some leadership studies will provide a background for the importance of humor as an additional leadership tool.

Leadership Studies

The role of the educational leader has changed over the years from one of being autocratic to being democratic. Early studies of leadership by Frederick Taylor (1911) and Max Weber (1946) described the leader as a despot whose job it was to get the most work out of the lazy worker. Taylor's time studies resulted in his piece-rate principle where a certain amount of work would be expected to be produced within a given time. This attitude continued through the first quarter of the twentieth century. A growing movement, the human relations movement, was championed by Mary Parker Follett (1924). She emphasized the needs of the worker as being an important factor in productivity. From 1928-1932 the Hawthorne studies were conducted by Elton Mayo (1933). The first study, the Western Electric study, found that productivity increased regardless of the environmental change. Mayo concluded that the attention given to the workers, rather than the changes themselves, caused the increase in production. The other study was the Bank Wiring Study. The finding from

that research was that incentives for increased productivity were weaker than social pressures to conform to the norm. Thus, Taylor's piece-rate principle was refuted.

A balance between the needs of the organization and those of the individual was proposed by McGregor (1960). He characterized the Theory X manager as one who distrusts employees and feels they must be coerced into working. The work environment in this organization would supply only what Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) labeled "job dissatisfiers" (working conditions, salary) or Maslow's (1943) lower-order needs of safety and security. McGregor argued that the process of integration should occur--one in which the needs of the individual are blended with those of the organization. Workers in this design, Theory Y, would then be happier and motivated. Their higher-order needs would be met (belonging, esteem, self-actualization); Herzberg's job motivators of job content, achievement, and recognition would be evident in the respect and responsibility they receive.

This balance between task accomplishment and personal relationship became the basis for two leadership models. In Blake and Mouton's (1974) managerial grid, a coordinate is assigned to indicate leadership style. Concern for production is illustrated on the horizontal axis. Concern for people is illustrated on the vertical axis. Five different kinds of leadership emerge with the team style as most

favorable. The work is accomplished through the commitment of people who work together toward the organizational goal.

Fiedler (1967) developed the Leadership Contingency Model. The contingency model of leader effectiveness is based on the idea that the performance of a group is contingent upon the motivations of the leader and the degree to which the leader has control and influence in a specific situation (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974).

During the early 1950s, Fiedler began studying the relationships of therapists and their patients. The success of the therapist was based on the therapist's similarity to his or her patients. Fiedler then began to study the similarities of leaders to the groups they led. Out of this early research an instrument called the Assumed Similarity between Opposites (ASO) was developed. It contained a rating scale for the leader's most preferred coworker and the leader's least preferred coworker. Success in predicting group performance was limited but the instrument produced good leadership style indicators. The Least Preferred Coworker Scale became a separate instrument because correlations to leader style were equivalent to the combined scores of the ASO (Fiedler, 1967).

Fiedler studied over 800 groups from 1951 to 1963 some of which included basketball teams, land surveying parties, B-29 air force combat crews--groups in which members had to coordinate their efforts to achieve a common goal (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974). He also conducted validation studies to

extend the contingency hypothesis to linguistically and culturally heterogeneous groups. The Belgium navy study revealed that the leader of highly heterogeneous groups must provide "social glue" to counteract diversive forces that operate, to make himself acceptable to different functions, and to cope when communication is likely to break down. Superiors in an organization must be proficient at assigning the appropriate leader to groups of greater or lesser heterogeneity. Other validation studies were conducted, each of which provided evidence that the task-oriented leader tends to perform best in situations which are very favorable or very unfavorable. The relationship-oriented leader performs best in situations intermediate in favorableness.

The following three major situational variables determine whether a situation is favorable to a leader: (1) leader-member relations, (2) task structure, and (3) position power. Leader-member relations parallel relationship concerns. Task structure and position power parallel task concerns. The favorableness of a situation is determined by the degree to which the situation enables the leader to influence the group. Fiedler went on to develop the attitudinal measure of leadership style used in this study. A leader evaluates his least preferred coworker (LPC) on a series of semantic differential type scales. Leaders are classified as high or low LPC depending on the favorableness with which they rate their LPC. High LPC

leaders get their major satisfaction from good personal relations with others. Low LPC leaders find their main satisfaction in getting things done.

Rice (1978) completed a review of the literature on Fiedler's scale and found "that high LPC persons value interpersonal success relatively more than do low LPC persons and that low LPC persons value task success relatively more than do high LPC persons" (p. 1230). Singh (1983) questioned Rice's findings by concluding that the LPC scale does not measure attitude or value for task or relation aspects in group situations. Stewart and Latham (1986) also argued that Fiedler's measure is more complex than assumed. Several factors in their analysis failed to demonstrate internal consistency. However, Fiedler and his associates (1967, 1974, 1977) have presented numerous studies to support the validity of the model. Chemers and Skrzypek (1972) also have lent support.

Fiedler revised and updated his contingency model after much criticism. Ashour (1973) attacked the validity and Beebe (1974) failed to find support for the predictive validity.

Reddin (1967), in the 3-D Management Style Theory, was the first to add an effectiveness dimension to the task and relationship concerns of the earlier attitudinal models. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) stated that "the difference between effective and ineffective styles is often not the actual behavior of the leader but the appropriateness of

this behavior to the environment in which it is used. In reality, the third dimension is the environment" (p. 97).

Hersey and Blanchard (1974) developed the situational leadership model. Tasks and relationships are included as well as the job maturity and readiness of the followers. By examining the task complexity and the maturity of the worker, an optimum match can be attained in which the integration McGregor described takes place.

The ability of an organization to adjust to change is affected by the skills and abilities of its management (Vroom, 1976). The success and improvement of educational programs often depends on the competence and expertise of the leadership. Humor has been noted as a pervasive part of the work climate (Duncan, 1982). Its existence suggests that humor performs a function and is a characteristic of the ideal organizational climate (Remington, 1985).

Implications and Summary

Some of the characteristics of humor as described in the literature are that it can liberate one from an uncomfortable reality; provide relief, superiority, and ambiguity; facilitate group interactions; help to resolve conflict; can be physically therapeutic; and benefit the learning process. All of these attributes can help a leader in the more effective management of people, both personally and professionally.

The effective schools research has continued to emphasize the importance of strong leadership. Strong leader-

ship can be enhanced by the development of additional skills. Humor can give the leader a tool to help integrate the needs of the worker with the goals of the organization.

The studies of leadership have shown an expansion of the previous narrow focus of the leader as an authoritarian decision-maker to a more flexible view of the leader--one who encourages input from the workers when the need or situation is appropriate.

Administrators are an integral part of a total system in the educational process. By increasing their repertoire of skills, they can have a greater impact on other aspects of the environment. Humor is one way to increase communication, resolve conflict and lessen stressful situations. It is a constructive technique for the skillful manager.

CHAPTER III METHODS

This chapter contains a description of the overall design of the study including the methods and procedures used in the investigation. The chapter is divided into seven sections: (1) procedures, (2) population, (3) null hypotheses, (4) instrumentation, (5) data analysis, (6) limitations, and (7) summary of the chapter.

Procedures

Principals were given a self-report humor style survey in which they categorized themselves according to four different styles. The same principals completed a leadership style instrument. For those who responded, their respective area directors, who were personally familiar with the principals, reported their perceptions of the humor style and perceived effectiveness of each principal supervised by them.

Population

The population of the study consisted of 78 elementary principals in a large urban school district. Of the 78 principals, 68 responded by completing the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) Scale. The supervisory area directors provided assessments of perceived humor style and leader

effectiveness of those 68 respondents. That number was further reduced by 8 respondents whose LPC scores were outside the limits set by the instrument. Because only two subjects were identified as reproducers of humor, both were dropped from further consideration. Thus, the final set of subjects included 58 principals. Of the 58 retained responses, 26 were males and 32 were females.

Null Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship between humor style and leadership style.

2. There is no significant relationship between humor style and gender.

3. There is no significant relationship between leadership style and gender.

4. There is no significant relationship between leader effectiveness and perceived humor style.

Instrumentation

The variables explored were humor style, leadership style, and perceived leader effectiveness. The sources of data for the humor styles were the self-report survey instruments completed by the principals and the humor style survey instruments completed by the area directors.

Babad (1974) constructed an instrument to measure four humor styles, because in most prior empirical studies the sense of humor was measured in a testing situation and was operationally defined as passive appreciation only. He felt that "humor is generated and used in socially relaxed

contexts and is fundamentally foreign to the testing laboratory" (p. 618). In addition, Wallach and Kogan (1965) found that a typical testing atmosphere generally is not conducive to tests of creativity. Both creativity and humor require the same cognitive processes in order to be generated. Babad believed that in order to obtain a valid measure of humor, it must be done within a social context using natural observations, self-report, and sociometric measurement. In Babad's study, he concluded that the subjects perceived themselves much in the same way they were perceived by their peers. His results, he felt, were a strong case against humor tests while validating the sociometric method. Groups using self-report surveys were closely related to the groupings developed by sociometric consensus.

Standardized instruments used in humor tests have been found to lack validity and reliability (Babad, 1974; Koppel & Sechrest, 1970). For these reasons, a sociometric approach was used in this study.

Principals were asked to categorize themselves in a self-report survey using Babad's four humor categories:

1. Nonhumorous--someone who finds it difficult to laugh; seldom tells jokes or creates humor; seldom seeks out humorous situations, or laughs at others' humor.
2. Appreciator--someone who shows readiness to laugh; enjoys the humor of others and seeks out humorous

situations; seldom tells jokes, makes up jokes or humorous stories himself or herself.

3. Producer--someone who invents humor; makes up jokes or witty, amusing stories, or creates humorous situations.

4. Reproducer--someone who retells others' amusing stories or jokes or reenacts amusing situations: the "joke teller."

Descriptions of these categories were used, rather than the actual titles. A person could have named him/herself in more than one category on the same sheet, except for those who defined themselves as nonhumorous. Producers and reproducers could have been listed as appreciators as well, but could not have appeared in the nonhumorous category in any report. Those who selected more than one category were asked to check the one that best represented their humor style. The five area directors rated the humor style of the respondents using the same four humor categories. If more than one category was checked, the one that best described the principal's humor style was listed.

Principals were also given the leadership style instrument entitled "Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker Scale." From this instrument, it was determined whether their predominant leadership style is task-oriented or relationship-oriented. This instrument consists of 18 items ranging in score potential from 1 (unfavorable) to 8 (favorable). The 18 items are pleasant-unpleasant, friendly-unfriendly, rejecting-accepting, tense-relaxed,

distant-close, cold-warm, supportive-hostile, boring-interesting, quarrelsome-harmonious, gloomy-cheerful, open-guarded, backbiting-loyal, untrustworthy-trustworthy, considerate-inconsiderate, nasty-nice, agreeable-disagreeable, insincere-sincere, and kind-unkind (Fiedler, Chemers, & Mahar, 1977).

Fiedler, Chemers, and Mahar (1977) described task-oriented leaders as those with a low LPC (Least Preferred Coworker) scale of 57 or below. They are strongly motivated to "complete successfully any task they have accepted" (p. 11). They are pleasant and considerate and care about the opinions of others as long as everything is under control. Unlike high LPC leaders, they perform well under stressful conditions and are not bored by highly controlled situations. In a low controlled situation (situations which are uncertain), the low LPC leader tends to neglect the opinions and feelings of subordinates. In moderate control situations, the low LPC leader will concentrate on the task and ignore the group members' needs. This may result in group conflict which in turn may damage task performance. Low LPC leaders run a "tight ship" and are just as well liked as high LPC leaders.

Relationship-oriented, or high LPC leaders, are those with a score of 64 or above. They rely on good personal relations and group participation to get the job done. When the situation is under control they often become bored, looking for other challenges. "Many high LPC

leaders then become inconsiderate of their group members, using too much control and punishment" (p. 10). In situations of low control, they need a great amount of group support, which may interfere with the accomplishment of the task. In moderate control situations, the challenge of the job balances with the need for good relations with group members which can result in good leadership performance.

People with scores ranging from 58-63 fall into a borderline category in which leaders are sometimes asked to designate their own style based on an analysis of both styles. However, for this study, this group of ambivalent principals, eight in number, was dropped from further analysis to more clearly delineate the subsets of task and relationship orientations.

There have been variations of thought as to what the Least Preferred Coworker Scale actually measures or what underlying traits or factors might correlate to the scores. Ashour (1973) criticized the test-retest reliability of the LPC. It had varied from .70 to .31. He questioned whether the LPC score reflected a stable motivational tendency or that it measured mostly chance responses.

Fiedler (1973) responded that in an unpublished study by T. R. Mitchell and Joyce Prothero, the retest reliability of the LPC scores for 18 faculty members was .67 over a time span of 15-18 months. Split-half-correlations for the LPC have been consistently between .85

and .95, and correlations with external criteria have been as high as .72. He also added that whether the LPC reflects a stable motivational tendency was another problem. Some of the correlations were actually lower than he would have wished. However, test-retest correlations measure some true variance, some error, and also some changes in the individual. Over time, Fiedler contends, an individual's motivational pattern will change. "The test-retest reliability of the LPC has been lower for adolescents or young men who have just joined the Army than it has been for mature adults in stable work environments" (p. 361).

Ashour (1973) also questioned the validity of the LPC. He believed the LPC to measure the halo error of rating. The halo error refers to a common error characterizing supervisory ratings of personnel. It indicates the inability of the rater to differentiate between different traits of the person being rated. "A rater free from such a tendency would tend to rate each trait independently, thus producing greater internal rating variance" (p. 346). Ashour stated that his interpretation is supported by the fact that the low LPC person describes the least preferred coworkers in a uniformly undifferentiated manner. The high LPC person's description has greater item variance with a standard deviation of .82, as opposed to the .43 for the low LPC person.

Mitchell (1970) proposed that the LPC measured cognitive complexity. He found evidence that low LPC leaders tended to give more stereotyped and cognitively simple responses than high LPC leaders.

Stewart and Latham (1986) reported that the criticism of the contingency model has been considerable. However, "Fiedler has revised and updated the model as valid criticism was levied and additional data became available" (p. 84). Fiedler (1973) contended that the interpretation of the LPC score has been under investigation for over 20 years. It is generally accepted as a consistent measure of a leader's style.

The source of data for the perceived leader effectiveness was a Likert scale included on the humor style survey instrument that was completed by the area directors. They designated perceived leader effectiveness on a continuum from "ineffective" to "effective."

Potential threats to internal validity were the return rate and item clarity of the surveys. The nature of the population restricted generalizability.

Data Analysis

In general, nonparametric statistical procedures were used because of the type of data collected (nominal scale data), the sample size, and the potential threat to the homogeneity of variance incurred by volunteer participants (Huck, Cormier, & Bounds, 1974).

The analysis for each null hypothesis was as follows:

1. There is no significant relationship between humor style and leadership style.

A two-by-four matrix was established with the four categories of humor style (nonhumorous, appreciator, producer, reproducer) and the two categories of leadership style (task-oriented and relationship-oriented). The analysis of the cross-tabulated matrix was examined through the application of a chi-squared analysis.

2. There is no significant relationship between humor style and gender.

A two-by-four matrix was established in which the proportion of males and females in each of the four humor style categories were compared. The nominal variables of humor styles and gender were cross-tabulated. Chi-squared was used for the analysis of the relationship.

3. There is no significant relationship between leadership style and gender.

The categories of task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership comprised the style variable. The variable was cross-tabulated with the gender variable, and chi-squared was used for analysis.

4. There is no significant relationship between leader effectiveness and perceived humor style.

The nominal variables of perceived humor style were cross-tabulated with a five level scale of perceived effectiveness utilizing chi-squared.

The alpha limit was set at .05 for all four tests.

Limitations

The following limitations applied to the investigation:

1. The study was confined to 78 elementary principals and the five area directors who rated them.
2. The data collection was limited to those principals who responded to the survey.
3. Data gathering was confined to two sources: surveys and self-reports.
4. The complexities inherent in measuring the nature of humor was limited by the type of instrument used.
5. There may have been confusion concerning the categories of humor.
6. Because this is a quantitative study with a small district-specific population, the findings cannot be generalized to other settings.

Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, the research methods in the investigation have been described. Included in this description were the procedures, the identification of the population, the null hypotheses, the instrumentation, the data analysis, and the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this chapter the findings of the statistical analysis of data are presented relative to the research questions stated in Chapter I. The findings from the statistical procedures applied to the data and a summary of results are included. The data were analyzed to determine relationships between principals' humor styles and their leadership styles. Humor styles, modified from a study by Babad (1974), were categorized as nonhumorous, appreciator, producer, and reproducer. Leadership styles were dichotomized as task-oriented and relationship-oriented as determined from an administration of Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker Instrument. The data also were analyzed to determine relationships between humor, leadership styles, and gender. Additional data were analyzed to determine the relationship between perceived humor style and leader effectiveness. Data for the latter two variables were provided by ratings of the principals by their respective supervisors.

Discussion of Statistical Results

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis addressed the relationship between humor style and leadership style. The four humor categories were reduced to two, those of appreciator and producer, because the number of subjects in the categories of nonhumorous and reproducer were too few in number to justify retention of the cross-tabulation cells. The task-oriented and relationship-oriented categories of the leadership style variable were cross-tabulated with the

Table 4-1

Observed Frequencies and Percents in a Cross-Tabulation of Humor and Leadership Styles

		Leadership Style		Totals	
		Task	Relationship	N	%
Humor Style		-oriented	-oriented		
Appreciator	N	10	33	43	
	%	17.24	56.90		74.14
Producer	N	9	6	15	
	%	15.52	10.34		25.86
Totals	N	19	39	58	
	%	32.76	67.24		100

$$\chi^2 = 5.25$$

$$df = 1$$

$$p < .05$$

appreciator and producer categories of the humor style variable.

From an examination of Table 1, the task-oriented leader was more likely to be a producer, while the relationship-oriented leader was more likely to be an appreciator. The chi-squared value representing these interrelationships was significant.

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis addressed the relationship between humor style and gender. Again, the four humor

Table 4-2

Observed Frequencies and Percents in a Cross-Tabulation of Humor Style and Gender

Gender	Humor Style		Totals	
		Appreciator	Producer	N %
Male	N	15	11	26
	%	25.86	18.97	44.83
Female	N	28	4	32
	%	48.28	6.90	55.17
Totals	N	43	15	58
	%	74.14	25.86	100

$$\begin{aligned} \chi^2 &= 5.18 \\ df &= 1 \\ p &< .05 \end{aligned}$$

categories were reduced to two, appreciator and producer, because the categories of nonhumorous and reproducer contained too few subjects to justify their inclusion as cross-tabulation cells. The appreciator and producer categories of the humor style variable were compared with gender.

From an examination of Table 2, the females were more likely to be appreciators, while the males were almost evenly distributed between appreciator and producer humor styles. The chi-squared value representing the interrelationships was significant.

Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis addressed the relationship between leadership style and gender. The leadership style variable was not related to the variable of gender. A non-significant chi-squared value of .00 was obtained with one degree of freedom.

Hypothesis Four

The fourth hypothesis addressed leader effectiveness and perceived humor style. All four humor categories were included as subsets of the humor style variable. The four styles were compared with effectiveness ratings (1 = ineffective, 5 = effective), which were reduced from a continuum of one to five to the ratings of three, four, and five. No effectiveness ratings were found in categories one and two, and those categories and their associated

cells were discarded. A nonsignificant chi-squared value of 6.95 was obtained with six degrees of freedom.

Summary of the Results

The purpose of Chapter IV was to present and discuss findings generated by this exploratory study. These findings include:

1. There was a significant relationship between humor style and leadership style as established through Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker Scale. Principals who rated themselves as producers of humor tended to be task-oriented in leadership style. Principals who rated themselves as appreciators of humor tended to be relationship-oriented in leadership style. The null hypothesis was rejected.

2. There was a significant relationship between humor style and gender. Principals who were females tended to rate themselves as appreciators of humor. Male principals tended to rate themselves almost equally as producers or appreciators of humor. The null hypothesis was rejected.

3. For questions three and four nonsignificant chi-squared values were obtained. There were no significant relationships between leadership styles and gender or perceived humor style and leader effectiveness. These findings resulted in a decision to retain their associated null hypotheses.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to enhance the knowledge of leader effectiveness through the study of humor and leadership styles. By knowing their humor and leadership styles, the researcher proposed that administrators may be able to enhance their effectiveness and that employers might find an applicant's sense of humor to be a subtle indicator both of leadership style and effectiveness. The study addressed the following questions:

1. What is the relationship between humor style and leadership style?
2. What is the relationship between the humor style and gender?
3. What is the relationship between leadership style and gender?
4. What is the relationship between leader effectiveness and perceived humor style?

The purpose, the conclusions drawn from the statistical analyses of data, and recommendations for further study are included in this chapter.

Conclusions

This exploratory study investigated the relationships between humor style, leadership style, and leader effectiveness. Humor and leadership style also were related to gender. Principals rated themselves as to humor style, and leadership style was determined by Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker Scale. Perceived humor style and leader effectiveness ratings were received from each principal's area director.

A review of the literature revealed the positive aspects that humor can provide. Theorists and researchers have asserted that humor, as a leadership tool, appears to broaden the repertoire of skills from which the leader may draw. Humor can indicate flexibility, which is a key factor in the current studies of leadership styles. However, the lack of research addressing the relationship between humor and leadership styles was noteworthy.

The conclusions and recommendations listed below are based on the hypotheses guiding this research, and the conclusions were made within the confines of the limitations of the study. Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The principals who reported themselves as producers of humor were found to be task-oriented. Some task-oriented leaders may seek self-esteem through task completion; others may be satisfying a high need for closure. Some may fear their value to superiors may diminish if

their own responsibilities are not completed on time. Regardless of the genesis for their task-orientation, many task-motivated leaders tend to relax and develop pleasant relations with subordinates during times when there is little uncertainty about the job getting done (Fiedler, Chemers, & Mahar, 1977). This may account for their inclination at such times to initiate or produce humor. Humor is used to enhance personal relationships at a time when the goals also are being reached. Furthermore, leaders with a task-orientation may use humor to maintain morale, which may help to keep subordinates on the task they need to complete, if the leader's goal is to be accomplished and his/her responsibilities are to be fulfilled.

2. Principals who rated themselves as appreciators of humor tended to be relationship-oriented in leadership style. Relationship-oriented leaders tend to seek self-esteem through good personal relationships with others, particularly subordinates. By showing a readiness to laugh, enjoying the humor of others and seeking out humorous situations, the relationship-oriented leader may be enhancing those close personal relationships.

Relationship-oriented leaders also may be more "other oriented" than their task-oriented counterparts. As such, they may find it easy to maintain rapport by appreciating the offerings of others, including humor, because to do so would improve the relationship between the leader and the appreciated follower.

3. Female principals more often rated themselves as appreciators of humor. Male principals tended to rate themselves almost equally as producers or appreciators of humor. This finding substantiates the research by Coser (1959, 1960), McGhee (1979), and Neitz (1980) who found that males tended to create humor while females more often reacted to it. Female initiators of humor were less inclined to think of themselves in terms of the prevailing social-sex role stereotypes. Coser (1960) also found that individuals in higher status positions initiated more frequent remarks than those in low status positions. Since women often occupy a lower status than men in hierarchical settings, including education, they may be expected to initiate humor less often if status level is related to a given humor style.

4. No significant relationship was found between leadership style and gender. Similar proportions of males as females were found to be task-oriented and relationship-oriented. One might have suspected that males would have been more task-oriented and females more relationship-oriented. It is possible that the finding may be related to today's changing roles of sex stereotypes. Men are becoming aware of the need to enhance personal relationships through better communication and expression of feelings. More men are staying at home to help with the family or household duties, for example. Meanwhile, more women are becoming top executives, entering the work force

and moving up the career ladder into positions previously dominated by men. Women in leadership positions may tend to adopt a no-nonsense work ethic which is more task-oriented in order to be taken more seriously as career professionals.

5. No significant relationship was found between principal's humor styles as perceived by their supervisors and those supervisors' perceptions of leader effectiveness. This may have been related to the area directors' narrow band of perceived effectiveness reducing discrimination variance. All of the evaluations, which could have been scaled from one (ineffective) to five (effective), were grouped among the three, four, and five ranges. Another reason for this finding may have been that persons in principalship roles in the district studied were appointed to their positions because they already had been perceived as more than marginally effective. If true, the small degree of variance might be explained on that basis.

Recommendations

Within the context of the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. A loglinear analysis should be done to determine the relative power of gender and humor to influence leadership style. Gender may or may not be an important variable in the development of a leadership style.

2. Studies investigating teachers' perceptions of principals' humor styles should be compared to principals'

self-report humor surveys. Comparing the teachers' perceptions of the humor style with the principals' self-report humor style would provide tangible feedback from a source of followers concerning the leader's humor style. This may provide the potential for further enhancing humor behaviors at the school site. Having teachers', supervisors', and principals' assessments of style would permit a more powerful triangulation of data sources.

3. Studies investigating teachers' perceptions of principals' humor styles should be related to teachers' perception of leader effectiveness. Principals' humor style and effectiveness as perceived by teachers could give the administrators important feedback to enhance both their humor and their leader behavior and to increase their leadership effectiveness.

4. This study should be duplicated in comparable school systems which could provide a larger and broader sample. The limited number of subjects in this study indicated significant relationships between humor style and leadership style, as well as humor style and gender. Enlarging the sample size would generate additional information about the concepts of humor and leadership. The variable of age also could be included.

5. A study should be conducted to provide a definition for humor as it relates to educational leaders. School principals and teachers could be asked to define what they consider to be appropriate humor behaviors in school

settings. A definition could give administrators a more precise goal for developing a more appropriate humor style as it relates to leadership.

6. Further studies should be conducted on humor styles as they relate to leadership effectiveness. If a relationship is found, humor style may be considered as an additional competency in the recruitment and evaluation of educational leaders.

APPENDIX A
FIRST COVER LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

Dear Principal:

I have been granted permission from the Department of Testing and Program Evaluation to solicit your participation in data collection for my dissertation topic entitled "The Use of Humor and Effective Leadership Styles" at the University of Florida. The focus of my research topic is on principals, their humor and leadership styles, and perceived effectiveness.

May I count on you to complete the enclosed two surveys? Your individual humor and leadership self-report survey will be provided if you indicate an interest in receiving the results on the enclosed form. Confidentiality is assured. There is a code number on the survey but it will only be used for the collection of data. No individuals will be identified in any way when reporting the results.

Responding to the items takes approximately twenty to thirty minutes. The instructions are indicated on each form.

I would appreciate your completing this and returning this data on or before April 27, 1989. Please return your completed responses in the self-addressed envelope.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kathi Philbrick

Enclosures

APPENDIX B
FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO PRINCIPALS



Dear Principal,

If you have not yet returned your Humor/Leadership Style Survey, there is still time to do so. I have enclosed another copy for your convenience. Please return it on or before May 5, 1989. Thank you so much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Kathi Philbrick

APPENDIX C
PRINCIPAL HUMOR SURVEY

PRINCIPAL HUMOR SURVEY

Code Number _____
Male _____ Female _____

Please put a check mark next to the category that best represents your humor style. You may check more than one category unless you check the category number 1.

- ___ 1. Someone who finds it difficult to laugh; seldom tells jokes or creates humor; seldom seeks out humorous situations, or laughs at others' humor.
- ___ 2. Someone who shows readiness to laugh; enjoys the humor of others and seeks out humorous situations; seldom tells jokes, makes up jokes or humorous stories himself or herself.
- ___ 3. Someone who invents humor; makes up jokes or witty, amusing stories or creates humorous situations.
- ___ 4. Someone who retells others' amusing stories or jokes or reenacts amusing situations: the "joke teller."

- - - - -

___ If you checked more than one category, which of those checked best describes your humor style.

APPENDIX D
PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP SURVEY

PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP SURVEY

Code Number _____
Male _____ Female _____

Instructions:

Of all the people with whom you have ever worked, think of the one person now or at any time in the past with whom you could work least well. This individual is not necessarily the person you liked least well. Rather, think of the one person with whom you had the most difficulty getting a job done, the one individual with whom you could work least well. This person is called your Least Preferred Coworker (LPC).

On the scale on the next page, describe this person by placing an "X" in the appropriate space. The scale consists of pairs of words which are opposite in meaning, such as Very Neat and Very Untidy.

Before you mark your "X," look at the words at both ends of the line. There are no right or wrong answers. Work rapidly; your first answer is likely to be the best. Do not omit any items, and mark each item only once. Ignore the scoring column, it will be completed by the researcher.

LEAST PREFERRED CO-WORKER (LPC) SCALE

		Scoring
Pleasant	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Unpleasant —
Friendly	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Unfriendly —
Rejecting	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Accepting —
Tense	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Relaxed —
Distant	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Close —
Cold	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Warm —
Supportive	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Hostile —
Boring	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Interesting —
Quarrelsome	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Harmonious —
Gloomy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Cheerful —
Open	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Guarded —
Backbiting	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Loyal —
Untrustworthy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Trustworthy —
Considerate	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Inconsiderate —
Nasty	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Nice —
Agreeable	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Disagreeable —
Insincere	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Sincere —
Kind	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Unkind —
		Total —

APPENDIX E
REQUEST FOR SURVEY RESULTS

REQUEST FOR SURVEY RESULTS
FROM
A STUDY OF HUMOR AND EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP STYLES

I would like a summary of my self-report results reported to me when they are available. Please send my humor/leadership profile to:

Name: _____

Address: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Please mail through the courier service to:

Kathi Philbrick
Bldg. 1100
Exceptional Education
Administrative Center

APPENDIX F
AREA DIRECTOR COVER LETTER

Dear Area Director:

I have been granted permission from the Department of Testing and Program Evaluation to solicit your participation in data collection for my dissertation topic entitled "The Use of Humor and Effective Leadership Styles" at the University of Florida. The focus of my research is on principals, their humor and leadership styles, and perceived effectiveness.

May I count on you to complete the enclosed survey? Responding to the items should only take fifteen minutes of your time. The instructions are indicated on each form.

I would appreciate your completing this and returning this data on or before May 11, 1989. Please return your completed response in the self-addressed envelope.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kathi Philbrick

Enclosures

APPENDIX G

AREA DIRECTOR HUMOR STYLE/EFFECTIVENESS
RATING OF PRINCIPALS

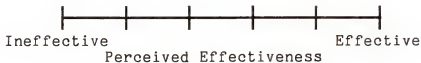
AREA DIRECTOR HUMOR STYLE/EFFECTIVENESS RATING OF PRINCIPALS

Directions: For the principal whose name appears below, please place a check mark next to the category that best represents his or her humor style. You may check more than one category, unless you check category number 1. Next, place an "X" on the continuum at the bottom of the page reflecting your assessment of the person's leadership effectiveness*.

Name of Principal _____

Code Number _____

- ___ 1. Someone who finds it difficult to laugh; seldom tells jokes or creates humor; seldom seeks out humorous situations, or laughs at others' humor.
- ___ 2. Someone who shows readiness to laugh; enjoys the humor of others and seeks out humorous situations; seldom tells jokes, makes up jokes or humorous stories himself or herself.
- ___ 3. Someone who invents humor; makes up jokes or witty, amusing stories or creates humorous situations.
- ___ 4. Someone who retells others' amusing stories or jokes or reenacts amusing situations: the "joke teller."
- ___ If you checked more than one category, which of those checked best describes the principal's humor style.



*Leadership effectiveness is defined as the consistent ability to influence others in a manner that is appropriate for the situation.

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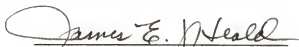
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Kathilyn Durnford Philbrick was born in Columbus, Ohio, on July 2, 1948. Her parents are Colonel Dewey F. and Joanne F. Durnford. She received her Bachelor of Arts degree in English from Ohio State University in 1971 and her Master of Education in mental retardation from the University of Central Florida in 1978.

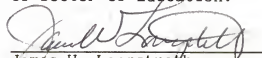
Her professional experiences include eleven years of teaching, over two years as a resource teacher, and two years as an administrator for the department of Exceptional Education with Orange County Public Schools.

The author considers herself to be an appreciator, producer, and a reproducer of humor. Since January of 1987, she has been presenting workshops on humor entitled "The Power of Laughter: Enjoying Life in the Classroom."


I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


James E. Heald, Chair
Professor of Educational
Leadership


I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


James W. Longstreth
Associate Professor of
Educational Leadership


I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Forrest W. Parkay
Professor of Educational
Leadership

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Henry T. Fillmer
Professor of Instruction
and Curriculum

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Michael D. Miller
Assistant Professor of
Foundations of Education

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

August, 1989


Dean, College of Education

Dean, Graduate School